THE VIRGINIA TEACHER

December, 1930

THOMAS D. EASON

TEACHING AS A VOCATION

JOHN W. WAYLAND

CONTRIBUTIONS OF CHRISTIANITY TO MODERN CIVILIZATION

JOHN N. McILWRAITH

NOTES ON THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION

RAUS M. HANSON

GEOGRAPHIC FACTORS AFFECTING RURAL CHURCHES OF ROCKINGHAM COUNTY

NEWS OF THE COLLEGE

THE READING TABLE

PUBLISHED AT THE
STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE
OF HARRISONBURG, VA.

15 CENTS

THE MCCLURE CO., INC. . . . PRINTERS . . . STAUNTON, VA.

Volume XI DECEMBER, 1930 No. 10

CONTENTS

$1.50 a Year Published Monthly except July, August, and September 15 Cents a Copy

THE VIRGINIA TEACHER is indexed in the *Education Index* published by the H. W. Wilson Co.

THE VIRGINIA TEACHER

VOLUME XI DECEMBER, 1930 NUMBER 9

TEACHING AS A VOCATION

WITH the possible exception of the vocations in which your parents are engaged, you have had more contact with teaching than with any other. The years that you have sat in school have given you an excellent opportunity to observe at first hand the character, methods of work, and mode of living of at least two groups of teachers—elementary and high school. While teachers in the high and elementary schools constitute by far the largest group of those engaged in the business of education, the profession claims many others of quite varied talents, including college professors, deans, and presidents; supervisors of art, music, and physical education; members of the professional staffs of state and federal departments of education; and a large group engaged chiefly in administrative phases of education. The administrative group, which is usually recruited from the ranks of successful teachers, includes principals of high and elementary schools, superintendents of county and city school systems, state superintendents of education, presidents of colleges and universities, secretaries or directors of great educational foundations such as The General Education Board and the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching.

In point of numbers employed, teaching stands at the head of the professions. As an agency for molding the lives of the youth of the nation, its place may be disputed only with the home and the church.

If you are concerned for the welfare of society, more interested in people than in things, fond of study, and willing to go through years of college training, you are justified in considering teaching as a vocation. In any consideration of teaching as a life work, the preparation required, compensation, qualities that contribute to success, and the difficulties encountered should receive attention.

Graduation from a two-year normal school course is now recognized as the minimum for teachers in the elementary grades, but many school systems are gradually introducing into these grades college graduates who have specialized in elementary teaching. The minimum requirement for high school teachers is now college graduation, with the principalships and better paid teaching positions going to those who hold the master's degree, which requires completion of a year's graduate study. While the colleges and universities employ as instructors and assistants, college graduates who have not attained the Ph. D. degree, there is little chance to secure a full professorship unless that degree, which requires three years of study beyond college graduation, is held.

In Virginia, beginning salaries of normal school and junior-college graduates range from $80 per month in the rural and small-town schools to $115 per month in the city schools. Teachers in the rural elementary schools seldom receive more than $100 per month, but in the cities a salary of $200 per month, on a nine-months' basis, may be attained when the teacher has completed ten years of successful service. College graduates who are appointed to positions in the elementary grades of rural schools usually begin at a salary of $100 per month; in the cities at a salary of about $125 per month.

While the notion that teachers in the high and elementary schools, whose preparation and experience are of the same nature,

---

This talk, the third of a series on choosing a vocation, was delivered to the high school pupils of Virginia through radio station WRVA, Richmond, Virginia, at 6:30 p. m., on October 16, 1930.

should be paid equal salaries is gaining favor, the practice of paying high school teachers better salaries is followed in most school systems; and, further, men are usually paid higher salaries than women, even though the preparation, ability, and type of work performed are approximately the same.

In the rural high schools the salaries of women range from $100 to $133 per month, for men from $125 to $200 per month; in city high schools the salary range for women is from $110 per month to $244, for men from $125 to $250 per month. High school principals receive from $1,350 per year, in the less wealthy counties, to $4,500 in the larger cities, the average salary being $2,300 per year. It should be noted in connection with the salaries of principals as well as of teachers that payment is usually on a nine-months' basis.

The salaries of county superintendents range from $1,600 per year to $5,500, with an average of $2,600; city superintendents receive from $3,500 per year to $7,750, the average being about $5,000. The compensation of college teachers of professorial rank may be as low as $2,500 or as high as $6,000 per year, depending upon the reputation of the professor and the wealth of the institution.

In considering these Virginia salaries, it should be noted that while they compare favorably with salaries paid in other southern states, they are markedly below those paid in the New England and western states, and well below the average for the nation.

It must be admitted that considering the preparation required and the responsibilities placed upon teachers, the pay is poor. Along with the poor pay, there should be listed such other disadvantages as the tendency of teachers to become dictatorial and irritable, the necessity of working at high tension, the monotony of teaching the same subjects year after year, the depressing effect of long hours in contact with immature minds, and the necessity of having to submit, in purely personal matters, to the comments of self-appointed critics who are ever ready to pass judgment on the affairs of teachers.

In considering the inducements offered by teaching, it is interesting to observe that "Who's Who in America" lists among the nationally prominent more persons engaged in teaching than in any other vocation; and in attaining recognition in the same list of eminent contemporary Americans, of all vocations, the children of educators are second only to the sons and daughters of preachers. Other advantages of teaching are that teachers occupy a position of respect and are privileged to contribute to the social and spiritual development of their communities. The daily hours of work are shorter than in most vocations, Saturdays are usually free, and the Easter and Christmas vacations are longer than in other lines of work, while the summer vacation offers an added inducement to those who are interested in advanced study and travel. There is an opportunity for the development of such collateral activities as magazine writing, textbook editing, public lecturing, private tutoring, and research; and, of no small consequence, the privilege of sharing the benefits of a State pension system for teachers.

In teaching, as in most other lines of endeavor, there are certain general qualities which contribute to individual success, the more important ones being good health, honesty, diligence, co-operation, good humor, tact, and self-control.

The specific qualities which make for success in classroom teaching are consideration for others, patience, idealism, self-control, ability to impart information, power to create in others a desire to seek and to apply knowledge, youthful spirit, knowledge of child nature, and power of command or ability to discipline. Whatever other qualities you may possess, if you lack this mysterious educational *it*—which brings respect without asking for it, leadership by consent,

friendship through understanding—your efforts in teaching will surely fail.

The qualities which are of importance as contributing factors to promotion from the ranks of classroom teachers to administrative positions in education are leadership, broad-mindedness, perseverance, resourcefulness, the ability to organize, tact, and power to work long hours.

A very important consideration in the choice of a vocation is the probability of securing and maintaining work. It is therefore stated in connection with teaching that at present there are many more persons who hold licenses to teach than there are teaching positions to be filled; but there is not a marked oversupply of persons who have the scholarship and other qualifications that are now being required of teachers. Competition in teaching, as in other professions, is keen, consequently only those who are prepared to meet maximum rather than minimum requirements should consider teaching as a life work.

THOMAS D. EASON

GEOGRAPHIC FACTORS AFFECTING RURAL CHURCHES OF ROCKINGHAM COUNTY

AS ONE drives in different directions from Harrisonburg, he is impressed with the number of well-cared-for rural churches in Rockingham county. It has been said that when a church property presents an outside appearance that suggests that it receives careful attention, one may safely decide that the organization of that church membership is active. But if the outside of the building shows need of repair and the church lawn and shrubbery or trees have evidently been neglected, an observer may safely decide that an inquirer will find that there is a lack of well-directed activities in the organization of the church membership. The Rockingham county rural churches make a favorable appearance on the outside. This observation interested the writer, and after talking with persons who are well acquainted with Rockingham county, it seemed that a study might indicate some geographic influences which have contributed to the favorable condition which appears to be present in the churches of that county. It seemed advisable that the study should have a limited field rather than attempt an investigation including more territory.

If time had permitted, there would have been an attempt to learn the land utilization by the membership of each church group. Such information would have indicated the number of acres devoted to each of the following: corn, wheat, oats, other cereals, alfalfa, pasture, orchards, and woodlands. It is reported in Rockingham county that as they use different crops and do not depend on one crop, it is possible to feel less effects of the failure of a specific crop. When the income of the rural group does not vary to extremes from one year to another, the church program can be more dependably financed. Money may not make religion, but it is not easy to maintain a religious program without money.

Permanent land ownership was another influence concerning which information could not be secured in the few weeks during which this study was made. Rockingham county people say that many farms have passsed from one generation to another, so that, for several generations, farms have been owned by one family or its ancestry. This has linked the family, generation after generation, to the same local church. The sentiment which associates with inheritance thus attaches to the site and building provided for the group worship of the community. It is often stated that sentiment cannot be measured, but at least a part of the contributing factors influencing sentiment may be noted. The greater sentimental attitude helps to furnish

the sense of responsibility which is needed in regard to church support in all its phases.

In planning the questionnaire by which the information was secured from the individual churches, it was necessary to limit the questions to that type which a minister might be expected to answer without too much imposition on his time. If there had been included such questions as land utilization and permanent land ownership, the answers to such questions would have seemed quite impossible, and fewer replies would have been received.

The questionnaire asked for the following information:

1. According to enclosed communication definition, is church village or open-country?
2. Distance to nearest church of same denomination?
3. Distance to nearest church of any denomination?
4. Total hours per month church building is used?
5. Number of members residents of community but employed outside of community area?
6. Number of families using automobile for church attendance?
7. Number of families using horse-drawn vehicles for church attendance?
8. Number of families ordinarily walking to church?
9. Church membership information:
   a. Number of families land owners or home owners
   b. Number of families tenants
   c. Number of families having members in more than one denomination
10. Number of families members of some other church or denomination, but conveniently located to attend the church making report.

Accompanying the questionnaire, there was a communication which stated that all churches located in villages of 300 or more population were omitted from the survey. Also, churches located in villages having between 30 and 300 population were to be classified as village churches, while those churches located so their immediate vicinity has a population of less than 30 were to be classified as open-country churches. That rather arbitrary classification was decided upon, because it seemed evident that ease of maintaining a church program will be influenced by the grouping of the population in the immediate vicinity of the church building. If exact numbers could not be given in furnishing information, ministers were asked to approximate.

The *Daily News-Record* of Harrisonburg publishes a church directory for Rockingham county. It includes the names of eighty-five churches which are located in the open-country or in villages of less than 300 population. Of the eighty-five, a pastor's name was given for seventy-two of these churches. Often a pastor serves two or four churches, so only thirty-eight inquiries were mailed. Twenty-one replies were received, and these gave reports from forty-nine churches. It would appear that the returns are comparatively representative. The pastors replying and the churches for which they reported represent 55 per cent of a complete report.

Thirteen replies were from churches loacted in villages having populations between 30 and 300, while the other thirty-six replies were from open-country churches. The replies from both groups are summarized in the appended table.

Brief comments may be made regarding the information given by the answers to the questionnaire. Of all the replies from both village and open-country churches, only one reported that its nearest church neighbor was the same denomination. This would seem to indicate that the location of the church site was influenced more by distance and denominational loyalty than by dissensions or divisions within a denominational group. Considering road conditions of a few generations ago and the use of horse-drawn vehicles, the distance between churches of the same denomination would have seemed to have approached the limit that those of former generations found it was convenient to go for church worship.

In observing the hours per month during which the church building is in use, it is noticed that, although in the comparisons

COLLECTED DATA REGARDING RURAL CHURCHES OF ROCKINGHAM COUNTY

	Village Churches			*Open-Country Churches*		
	Max. No. Reported	Min. No. Reported	Av. No. Reported	Max. No. Reported	Min. No. Reported	Av. No. Reported
Miles to nearest church same denomination	9	1	4.3	10	½	4.2
Miles to nearest church any denomination	2.5	*		6	†	
Hours per month church building used	30	7	14	24	4	9
Members, community residents, employed outside	45	3	15	25	0	4
Families using automobiles	80	2	24	55	0	22
Families using horse-drawn vehicles	3	0		10	0	2
Families walking	45	0	14	25	0	7
Families land-owners or home-owners	90	8	26	50	2	24
Families tenants	29	0	9	15	0	3
Families having members more than one denomination	24	1	7	12	0	3
Families of other church membership conveniently located to attend church making report	15	1	6	30	1	11

*Same yard.
†Same ground.

the village churches have scheduled activities which total more hours than the open-country group, yet the difference is not a great number of hours. This suggests that the activities of the open-country group approach those scheduled by the village churches.

From various sources of information, it was judged there were a fairly large number of persons who were residents of a rural community area but were employed outside that community area. Since the residence was retained within the community, these persons contribute to the supporting population for the rural churches. Two-thirds of the employees of one of Harrisonburg's largest factories are not residents of the city, while another of the larger factories has about one-half of those on its pay-roll coming from outside the city. This labor supply has its residence in the rural communities but comes to the city daily as workers in the factories. The automobile may have brought some problems to the rural church, but that type of transportation makes possible the retaining of a residence in a rural community several miles from the place of employment. This results in a supporting population remaining near the church, so the church loses less than it would if that labor supply found it necessary to move from the home community.

Also, this means of transportation is a contributing factor in getting people together for their group worship and other church activities. For both village and open-country churches, Sunday has almost become a day of rest for horses. If man is considered as being less inclined to "Remember the Sabbath day to keep it holy," as that part of the commandment applies to himself, he should at least be given credit with making lighter demands on the strength of his beast in order that the owner may attend hours of worship within the church. In comparing village and open-country churches, there are about half as many families who walk to the open-country churches as the number of those walking to the village churches.

From the village church reports, it is found that 75% of the families of the church-membership belong to the home-owning group. Of the families in the open-country memberships, 87% are home own-

ers. These per cents indicate the churches of the country have a more permanent group than would be found in sections of the country in which tenancy predominates. Only one rural church in the entire county reported more tenants than land or home owners in the families of the church membership.

The question regarding the number of families having members in more than one denomination was included because this is one of the non-geographic factors for which it was comparatively easy to gather information. Only 19% of the total families in the village churches were reported as represented in more than one denomination. This per cent indicates a pronounced denominational loyalty in the members of such families so the individuals would be concerned about the maintenance of the church program of the denomination to which the individual gives allegiance. Such denominational loyalty would also contribute to an individual desire to maintain his church plant in good repair. As the open-country churches average only half as many families represented in more than one denomination, it would seem that village conditions tend to give more encouragement to persons to marry outside the denominational group. Or it may be that after such marriages, the village churches have retained their members within the denominational groups to a greater extent than is found in the ouen-country churches.

For the last question regarding members of other denominations having their residence so they were more conveniently located to the reporting church than any other, it is noted that the number is nearly twice as large per church as was found for the village churches, so it might seem to indicate that the open-country church location is not as nearly central for the church group as might have been anticipated at an earlier year in that church's history. It is also noticeable that when comparing the information given in answer to the last two questions the number of families having membership in more than one denomination is more often found in the village churches, while the open-country church leads in having non-membership families so located that they are more convenient to attend the open-country church.

This type of church survey does not plan to oppose the more usual type which considers total membership, accessions for the year, financial reports, etc., but this survey considers some of the influences which affect the extent of the activities of the church program. A more complete survey should indicate other influences which the natural environment has upon the activities of a church organization.

RAUS M. HANSON

CONTRIBUTIONS OF CHRISTIANITY TO MODERN CIVILIZATION

CHRISTIANITY has proved to be more than a religion—it has become a program of life and a motive force for civilization. It has transformed nations as well as individuals. It has shaped social standards and modified governments. It has elevated art, ennobled music, sweetened literature, and humanized law. It has quickened philanthropy, abolished slavery, and magnified education. It holds out the Golden Rule to industry and commerce, and is seeking to displace war with justice and international good will. It has not achieved its full possibilities, but much has been done, Christianity has never really failed where it has been given a fair trial, either as a religion or as a social program.

Lecky, the eminent English historian, in his monumental work on European morals from Augustus to Charlemagne, has this to say:

Reprinted, by permission, from Wayland's *Chapters in Church History,* just published by Fleming H. Revell Company.

"It was reserved for Christianity to present to the world an ideal character, which through all the changes of eighteen centuries has inspired the hearts of men with an impassioned love; has shown itself capable of acting on all ages, nations, temperaments, and conditions; has been not only the highest pattern of virtue but the strongest incentive to its practice."

Lecky presents at length two notable effects of Christianity upon the heathen world: (1) A new sense of the sanctity of human life; (2) the teaching of universal brotherhood. He cites many particular facts of proof under each of these heads. For example, the new sense of the sanctity of human life soon reduced suicide, infanticide, and gladiatorial shows. It also led to the establishment of numerous foundling hospitals.

The teaching of universal brotherhood made for the amelioration and gradually the abolition of slavery, and for manifold activities in the broad field of charity. Lecky says:

"This vast and unostentatious movement of charity, operating in the village hamlet and in the lonely hospital, staunching the widow's tears, and following all the windings of the poor man's griefs, presents few features the imagination can grasp, and leaves no deep impression upon the mind. The greatest things are often those which are most imperfectly realized; and surely no achievements of the Christian Church are more truly great than those which it has effected in the sphere of charity."

Lecky says further, and more particularly:

"As time rolled on, charity assumed many forms, and every monastery became a center from which it radiated. By the monks the nobles were overawed, the poor protected, and the remotest spheres of suffering explored. During the darkest period of the middle ages, monks founded a refuge for pilgrims amid the horrors of the Alpine snows. A solitary hermit often planted himself, with his little boat, by a bridgeless stream, and the charity of his life was to ferry over the traveller. When the hideous disease of leprosy extended its ravages over Europe, ... new hospitals and refuges overspread Europe, and monks flocked in multitudes to serve them."

Many legends of miracles grew out of those experiences of devotion and self-sacrifice. For example, the story is told of St. Julien who, having by mistake committed a terrible crime, did penance by becoming a ferryman at a great river. One dark, stormy night, when the waters were high and the winds raging, he heard a call from the other side. He went over, took the wayfarer into his boat, and rowed him across the dangerous tide. When he got over he found that he had Christ in his boat. This story is painted on a window of one of the old French cathedrals.

It would be hard to over-emphasize the influence of Christianity upon architecture and painting. The Greeks and the Romans had both excelled in architecture-building; and the Greeks had also excelled in painting and sculpture, as fine arts. What Christianity did in architecture, painting, and sculpture was to supply subject and motive; and through these, character.

From about the year 800 A. D. to perhaps 1150, the style of architecture that prevailed in Europe was called the Romanesque, because it preserved some of the distinctive features of the old Roman buildings—the massive round arch, for example. The prevailing Christian enthusiasm turned this Romanesque architecture largely into the building of churches. Many of the early churches were modeled after a Roman secular building, the basilica. The basilica was a sort of public assembly hall. Its shape and plan were suitable for the worship of Christian assemblies; and so churches were built in the form of basilicas —they were often called basilicas. Many

of them were very beautiful. At Rome and elsewhere some are still preserved. In central Syria, in certain old towns that have lain for centuries in ruins, are to be found a dozen or more Christian basilicas. In various modern structures the old basilical types have been reproduced. In the wonderful church at Rome, St. Paul's Without the Walls, is a section in which is reproduced a splendid Romanesque basilica.

In the 11th or 12th century the Romanesque style of architecture began to give way to a new style, more glorious and more serviceable. This new style came to be known as the Gothic. It originated, or had its first notable development, in France, especially at Paris. It soon became the most popular type in Europe, and it was employed in structures that have ever since been wonders of the world. It reached its highest perfection in the building of churches and cathedrals. It still remains the most popular style for Christian edifices in Europe and America.

The distinctive features of Gothic architecture are the pointed arch, the vaulted ceiling, and the flying buttress. The pointed arch gives variety, beauty, and adaptability. It can be made higher or lower, to suit other conditions. It leaps upward in effect, and seems to bear the spirit of the beholder with it.

The vaulted ceiling has the same qualities as the pointed arch—it is in reality a maze of pointed arches converging to an overhead center. The flying buttress is the half of a pointed arch, used as an outside prop to the cathedral wall, by means of which the wall is given strength without so much thickness, and with more window space. In many of the old cathedrals a perpetual twlight falls, even in midday; but lacking the windows and the thinner walls which are made possible by the flying buttresses they would be gloomy instead of glorious.

Europe has many architectural and other material wonders; but none excel in beauty and splendor the great cathedrals. They are visited every year by thousands of people from all the world. They are a gift of the Christian Church to art, beauty, and culture. The cathedral of Milan, Italy, is a huge marvel of pink-tinted white stone, crowned with pinnacles, each one of which is topped with a statue. Westminster Abbey in London is a splendid Gothic cathedral. At Paris, at Rheims, at Cologne, at Canterbury—at dozens of places—are these marvelous monuments to an age of faith, of skill, of devotion. They are works of Christian art manifold, in which architecture, sculpture, and painting are all combined; and the world has not yet been able to excel them for splendor, for grace, for strength, for beauty.

As already observed, the Greeks, and to some extent the Romans, did wonderful things in the various forms of building and decorative art. In high qualities of craft and skill Christian art made no advance; but Christian art did choose other and better subjects. In the art galleries of Europe today one can find examples of all sorts, Christian and pagan; but as a rule it is easy to recognize each kind. Each has its favorite subjects; each has its distinctive character. Much of pagan art is debasing. Christian art is generally elevating.

It was Christian art that engaged the highest skill of the greatest artists of the Middle Ages. Christian subjects enlisted their devotion and inspired their matchless genius. The subject that was perhaps most frequently painted was the Virgin Mother with the child Jesus. Every art gallery of Europe has a number of Madonnas. Other sacred subjects are numerous. Some of the representations of Biblical scenes and characters are among the world's masterpieces. For example, in the Doge's palace in Venice is an oil painting about thirty feet high and ninety feet long, by Tintoretto. The sub-

ject is heaven. On the canvas are about 900 figures, life size or larger.

In the Sistine Chapel at Rome is one of the world's most famous pictures—a painting by Michelangelo. The subject is the Last Judgment. In an old dining room in the city of Milan is another masterpice, one of the best known pictures in the world. It was painted by that matchless genius, Leonardo da Vinci. Mutilated by vandals and preyed upon by time and weather, it has been restored with patient skill and preserved with devoted care. It is the Last Supper. Christ is represented at the table with the Twelve. In this old painting subject and workmanship combine with marvelous effect.

These are only a few of the well-known masterpieces produced by Christian artists, inspired by Christian subjects. If the art galleries of Europe were robbed of their Christian art, they would hardly be worth visiting.

The greatest music of the world is Christian music. Handel's *Messiah,* Mendelssohn's *Elijah,* and Haydn's *Creation* are examples. A few of the great Christian hymns like "Jerusalem the Golden," "Lead Kindly Light," and "Rock of Ages" are a priceless heritage and may serve as examples of a large collection, old and new.

The Dark Ages would have been a starless night if it had not been for the Christian Church. The priests, the monks, kept learning alive through all those benighted centuries. Lecky, the eminent historian already quoted from, speaks of the monasteries as the receptacles of learning. The monks were not so much creative, but they were patient, accurate, and preservative.

In the New World, no less than in the Old World, the church has lighted beacons from its altar fires. In the United States, prior to 1800, there were about thirty colleges and universities. Of these, at least seventeen, more than half, were schools that had been founded by churches or by clergymen. Only five were state universities. These five were the University of Pennslyvania, founded 1740; the University of Georgia, founded 1785; the University of North Carolina, founded 1789; the University of Vermont, founded 1791; and the University of Tennessee, founded 1794.

Prior to 1750, there were seven colleges and universities in the United States, some of them in their feeble beginnings. Of these seven all but one were church schools or missionary schools. The six, gifts of the church to a raw civilization, were Harvard, founded 1636; William and Mary, founded 1693; Yale, founded 1701; the Moravian Seminary, Bethlehem, Pennsylvania, founded 1742; Princeton, founded 1746; and Washington and Lee, founded 1749.

The one notable contemporary of these, not directly the gift of the church, was the University of Pennsylvania, founded in 1740.

It is possible that other institutions of learning, not enumerated above, whose history has been lost, existed in colonial days; but if so it is probable that the large majority of them were rather direct products of the Christian Church and Christian teaching.

The church was not only the great pioneer of education in the New World, its work in that field has continued with unabated zeal and growing resources. At present, among the colleges and universities of the United States, at least 150 may properly be classed as church schools.

JOHN W. WAYLAND

There need not be in religion, or music, or art, or love, or goodness, anything that is against reason; but never while the sun shines will we get great religion, or music, or art, or love, or goodness, without going beyond reason.

HARRY EMERSON FOSDICK

NOTES ON THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION

FOLLOWING are some teaching notes on the American Revolution unit with partial bibliography appended:

FACTORS MAKING FOR AMERICAN NATIONALITY

1. Character of settlers—individualistic.
2. Distance from Europe—distance only name for time and effort.
3. Adequate natural resources sufficient to maintain large population.
4. Rapid increase in population.
   1700—275,000
   1720—475,000
   1740—900,000
   1760—1,600,000
   1775—2,500,000
5. Experience in Colonial Wars. Resentment of British officers. Knew each other.
6. Expulsion of France from North America which took away desire for protection.
7. Long practice in self-government.
8. Indifference to English trade regulations. English laws not enforced.

FACTORS MOVING TOWARDS UNION

1. Same race—religion—consciousness of kind—more alike than different.
2. Expansion of settlement which brought people nearer together.
3. Geographically a unit. Near together after all. All along same coast, etc.
4. Communication developed—roads built—postal union 1720.
5. Co-operation incident to Colonial Wars and Indian troubles. Inter-colonial meetings. Menace of Indian a unionizing factor.
6. Frontier conquered by Germans, etc. People who do not have feeling of loyalty to Colonial Government or English Government. Without strong colonial ties.
7. Common religious interests. Church relations overswept borders.
8. Colonial sympathy against English prerogatives. Interchange of reports against crown and governor.

FACTORS AGAINST COLONIAL UNITY

1. Colonies had individual history.
2. Difficulties of communication.
3. Boundary disputes.
4. Disputes as to commanders in colonial wars.
5. Ill feeling between different colonies.
6. Obstacles against solidarity within each colony.

POLITICAL CAUSES OF AMERICAN

1. America populated by radicals and dissenters.
2. Act of Uniformity not extended to Colonies.
3. 17th Century a period of laxity in colonial affairs.
4. English imperial policy formulated middle of 18th Century.
   A. Independent executives and judges.
      1. To be paid from money collected at custom houses.
   B. Defensive system improved.
      1. Albany Congress of 1754.
      2. Pontiac rebellion.
      3. Colonies pay part of expenses of late wars and up-keep of troops by Stamp Act and Trade Laws.
         a. Reception of Stamps in America.
         b. Stamp Act Congress.
         c. Non - importation - consumption agreement.
   C. Enforcing trade regulations.
      1. Writs of Assistance.
      2. Admiralty Courts.
      3. Revenue cutters to patrol coasts.
         a. Gaspee incident.
         b. Capture of ship *Liberty* 1768.
      4. Two regiments sent to Boston.
         a. Boston Massacre.
         b. Removal of troops.
      5. Government aid to East India Company.
         a. Allowed them to send tea direct to colonies.
         b. Reception of tea in America.
         c. Boston Tea Party.
         d. Five Intolerable Acts.
            1. Closing port of Boston.
            2. Changing Massachusetts charter.
            3. Trial in England.
            4. Quartering Act.
            5. Quebec Act.
         e. Committees of Correspondence.
         f. First Continental Congress.
            1. Non-importation and consumption agreement.
            2. Provided for Congress following year.
         g. Gage governor in Massachusetts.
            1. Call for Assembly.
            2. Assembly meets at Cambridge.
            3. Ignores government of Gage.
            4. Militia drilled and arms collected at various places—Concord, Lexington, etc.
            5. Gage attempts to seize these stores, April 19, 1775.
      5. Fundamental question: Should British Parliament rule Great Britain in all its parts or should Parliament rule England, and colonial assemblies rule Colonies, with only a federal bond between.
         a. English conception of representation.
         b. American conception of representation.

BRITISH IMPERIAL PROBLEM

Three distinct concepts of nature of Empire.

1. Theory of Colonial Dependency.
   Britain regarded as head and mistress of her

dominions and the dominions as children, proper subjects for exploitation under the old colonial system. Adherents to this view believed that the Parliament then existing at Westminster was in fact an imperial Parliament, in the form it then had, *i. e.*, that the Lords and Commons of Great Britain were adequate representatives of all the outlying portions of the Empire as well as of the constituencies which they happened to represent on the island of Britain. They believed that this Parliament and political supremacy and overlordship over all the Dominions wherever situated.

2. There were those who believed that there should be an Imperial Parliament, but that the Parliament as then constituted was not such an assembly. These men held that the British Empire was in essence a federal state, and that as such it should have a Federal Parliament, representing all the dominions, with supreme jurisdiction over all the empire and paramount over all subordinate legislatures. These were the advocates of "imperial federation."

3. There were those who held to the theory that the colonies in America were in fact states in the political sense, that their local legislatures were the supreme power over them, under the Crown; that their sole connection with Great Britain lay in the Crown. "Commonwealth of Nations." This view never carried to its logical conclusion."

ECONOMIC CAUSES OF THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION

American Revolution was not a conflict caused by King George III, nor a spontaneous uprising on the part of the people of the colonies, neither does "Taxation without representation" cover the cause of the conflict.

The causes of the Revolution must be considered from economic, intellectual, social, political, psychological, and religious viewpoints.

A. Economic Viewpoint: Colonists came to New world because
   1. Of the economic, religious, and social conditions of the Old World.
   2. Business men wanted England to expand.
   3. Government wanted source of supply in building up commerce and navy. Wanted to confine exports of colonies to mother country. Would discourage industrial development in colonies if same could be made at home. Enumerated certain articles which had to be sent to England entirely, such as tobacco, indigo, sugar, rice, molasses, naval stores, copper, iron ore, ashes, beaver skins, whale products, and hides. Also forbade farmers growing tobacco in England. Southern colonies and West Indies were more important to England than the New England Colonies. The prohibition and navigations laws were for the most part ignored.

MOLASSES ACT OF 1733

Molasses from French West Indies cheaper than from English West Indies. New England traded with French. The French products were about 25% cheaper. England attempted to prohibit this trade by a heavy tax, but the act was not enforced at this time, and it only led to smuggling, openly connived at, which in turn led to disrespect of law. England, by not enforcing her acts, helped to establish that disrespect of law which became a habit in the thirteen colonies.

CHANGE IN IMPERIAL POLICY ABOUT 1750

England now centralized the control of Indian affairs and western lands. The support of troops for the protection of the frontier was now shifted in part to the colonies. She also started to enforce her past acts in regard to the colonies.

The English policy at this time must be thought of in the light of the Hundred Years War, fought over large areas of the earth's surface. The English had carried this burden until they could carry it no longer, and now asked the colonies to help defend themselves in the future.

From 1754 to 1763 the British War debts, already heavy, increased five fold. Therefore, England did not feel that she was laying a burden upon the colonies when she asked them to adhere strictly to the new British system and to stop the illegal trade with the French.

A. The Congress which met in Albany in 1754 wanted to:
   1. Regulate Indian policy.
   2. Purchase Indian lands.
   3. To raise and pay an army and navy.
   4. To levy taxes in time of war.
   5. Make laws for union with consent of Crown. This plan of union fell through because of particularism.

FORCES TENDING TO PULL COLONIES OUT OF EMPIRE

1. Feeling of individualism.
2. Distance from England.
3. Environment.
4. Disrespect of English law.

GREENVILLE POLICY

1. Sugar Act. An act for revenue mainly. £40,000 a year from act at cost of £13,000 for collection. This act
   a. restricted trade
   b. took specie out of colonies
   c. diminished industry in New England
   d. caused unemployment and business depression.
2. Stamp Act. A revenue act supposed to get £61,000 annually. No specie in colonies to pay it.
3. Mutiny Act. A defense act. Colonies to pay for expense of about 10,000 troops. Business depression forbade more taxes of this type.
4. Proclamation of 1763. Closed the west and cut off a cheap supply of land. The colonial governments were forbidden to grant lands west of the mountains, and the settlers already there were told to get out. This act also proclaimed that all lands west

of the Mississippi were reserved for the Indians.

5. Currency Act of 1764. This act forbade the use of paper money and there was very little hard money in the colonies at any one time, so this act was bitterly protested by the debtor class.

POLITICAL THEORIES OF THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION

All this time the colonists were spinning political theories to bolster up or rationalize their economic desires. The first protest against the British economic system came from the assemblies, the second from the pamphlet writers, and the third from mobs.

The colonists first took refuge in the theory of rights of Englishmen under the British Constitution. Driven from this, they turned to the natural rights philosophy, *i. e.,* their rights not as Englishmen, but as human beings.

SUMMARY OF THEORIES OF INDIVIDUALS

Stephen Hopkins: "The Rights of the Colonies Examined" 1764.

Argument: All colonies in ancient and modern times have always enjoyed as much freedom as the mother state and it could hardly be supposed that the British colonies were an exception to that rule. Hopkins does not define the rights of the colonies—he merely raises questions about them. Have we not rights? We have always enjoyed rights and privileges; why should we not continue to enjoy them? etc.

James Otis: "The Rights of the Colonies" 1764.

Argument: All British colonies are subject to and dependent on Great Britain. The Parliament of Great Britain has an undoubted power and lawful authority to make acts for the general good which are binding upon the subjects of Great Britain. The power of Parliament is uncontrollable but by themselves and we must obey. They only can repeal their own acts. There would be an end of all government if one or a number of subjects or subordinate provinces should take upon themselves to judge of an act of Parliament and to refuse obedience to it. If Parliament has a right to tax our trade, it has a right to tax anything else. Parliaments are in all cases to declare what is for the good of the whole, but there is in all cases a higher authority, *i. e.,* God. Should an act of Parliament be against any of His natural laws it would consequently be void. Taxation without representation is tyranny, but we have to obey.

Townshend:

Argument: Distinction between external and internal tax, nonsense. He was willing to lay only external taxes to be collected at ports of entry. The colonists now agreed with Pitt that Parliament had no power to take money out of their pockets without their consent.

Hutchinson, Thomas: 1764. Contents of a letter.

Argument: Every interest in England is represented in Parliament, but the colonies have an interest distinct from the interests of England.

Patrick Henry: Virginia Resolves on Stamp Act. May 30, 1765.

Resolved therefore, That the General Assembly of this Colony have the only and sole exclusive right and power to lay taxes and impositions upon the inhabitants of this Colony . . . The inhabitants of this Colony are not bound to yield obedience to any law or ordinance whatever, designed to impose any taxation whatsoever upon them, other than the laws or ordinances of the General Assembly.

Soame Jenyns: "Objections to the Taxation of our American Colonies Briefly Considered" 1765.

Argument: Many English communities such as Manchester and Sheffield are taxed without sending representatives to Parliament so that the English colonies are represented as much as these communities. Either Manchaster is not represented in Parliament, in which case Parliament can, and does, tax Englishmen without their consent, or else Boston is represented in Parliament, in which case she has no grievance. Virtual representation.

Daniel Dulaney: "Considerations on Raising Revenue by Act of Parliament" 1765.

Argument: Refuted doctrine of virtual representation. The non-electors, the electors, and the representatives residing in Great Britain are individually the same. The security of the non-electors against oppression is that their oppression would fall also upon the electors and the representatives. If non-electors should not be taxed by Parliament, they would not be taxed at all. The colonies pay taxes levied by their own legislatures and, therefore, would not be exempt from taxation if not taxed by Parliament. The influence from Dulaney's argument is that the colonies should send representatives to Parliament, or Parliament has no right to tax. Colonists objected to sending representatives to England. Parliament had always imposed certain duties, the Sugar Act for example. Writers now drew a distinction between internal and external taxes. The Stamp Act Congress drew this distinction in substance. Thus at the time of the repeal of the Stamp Act in 1766, the colonies did not deny that Parliament possessed of general legislative jurisdiction over them. They maintained only that this jurisdiction did not include the right of laying taxes upon them without their consent, and that direct internal taxes were a violation of constitutional rights.

John Dickinson: "Farmers Letters" 1767-8.

Argument: Distinguished between duties laid for the regulation of trade and duties laid for bringing in revenue. Since a tax might be for both, the real intention of the framers of the law must be considered. His countrymen would have sufficient understanding to discover the intentions of those who rule over them.

Question: Could the British Government by administrative order suspend or abolish the colonial assemblies? Governor Colden of New York had suspended the New York Assembly. To meet this emergency a theory which denied the jurisdiction of the British Government in a particular matter, such as the taxing power,

was inadequate. Some theory had to be found defining the jurisdiction of the British and Colonial Governments. Dickinson assumed that the British were one people, the Americans, another, and each free. An Englishman would have maintained that they were not free, but subject to Parliament. Parliament had always exercised jurisdiction over them.

Samuel Adams:

Argument: All legislature are subject to the British Constitution and the Constitution is founded in the law of God and nature. The power of any legislative body stops where the natural rights of man begin. Adams found one of their rights: every man had the sole disposal of his property.

NATURAL RIGHTS PHILOSOPHY

This philosophy commonplace in the 18th century. There is a natural order of things in the world designed by God and that they can be discovered.

Compact theory of government: Miedieval philosophers had conceived of the authority of princes as resting upon a compact with their subjects to rule righteously, failing which their subjects were absolved from all allegiance. Who was to judge? In early history the Pope later by revolution. Subjects are not bound to obey a king who commands what is contrary to the will of God. How was one to know the will of God? In the 18th century nature had stepped in between God and man. You could only know God's will by discovering the laws of nature. I think, therefore I am, and if I can think straight enough and far enough I can identify myself with all that is—that is nature. Reason is the only sure guide which God has given man, therefore, reason is the only foundation of just government. Governments derive their powers from the consent of the governed. Locke justified the Revolution of 1689 on this basis: American philosophers attempting to justify the American Revolution on the same basis. Locke's statement of case, Becker, P. 56.

Benjamin Franklin: Letters, 1768.

Argument: Questioned reasoning of Dickinson and Adams. "I know not what the people of Boston mean by the subordination they acknowledge to Parliament while they deny its power to make laws for them." "No middle ground can be maintained. Parliament has the power to make all laws for us or it has the power to make no laws for us, and I think the arguments for latter more weightier than those for the former." By 1770 Franklin assumed that the Empire was composed of separate states all subject to the King.

James Wilson: "Considerations on the Nature and Extent of the Legislative Authority of the British Parliament." 1774.

Argument: Parliament has no legislative jurisdiction over the colonies. What is the ultimate end of all government? All lawful government is founded in the consent of those who are subject to it. The happiness of the society is the first law of every government. Law is a rule of action which is prescribed by some superior and which the inferior is bound to obey. Wilson denies the idea of a superior state existing for people. The colonies are connected with Great Britain in the person of the King.

Thomas Jefferson: "A Summary View of the Rights of British America" 1774.

Argument: Our ancestors left England and established new societies in the wilderness. That settlement having been made, the emigrants thought proper to adopt that system of laws under which they had hitherto lived and to continue their union with England by submitting themselves to the same common sovereign who was thereby made the central link connecting the several parts of the Empire. The British Parliament had ursurped the power of legislating for the colonies, and these unjust encroachments in late years had so multiplied as to be no longer tolerable. These views not accepted by the Virginia Convention.

John Adams: At First Continental Congress, 1774.

Argument: A member of the Committee to Prepare the Declaration of Rights. Notes on the debates in the Committee. Becker: "Declaration of Independence," P. 119-21.

THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

June 7, 1776, Richard Henry Lee on behalf of the Virginia Delegation submitted three resolutions to the Continental Congress of which the first declared that "These united Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states, that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British Crown, and that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved. This resolution of independence was voted by Congress, July 2, 1776. This is the official Declaration of Independence. June 10 it was voted to appoint a committee to prepare a declaration to the effect of the said first resolution. The committee appointed was Jefferson, John Adams, Franklin, Roger Sherman, and Robert Livingston. On June 28 this committee reported to Congress a draft of the Declaration which, after being modified, was agreed to by Congress on July 4. This is known as our Declaration of Independence, although the document has no such title. Jefferson called it a Declaration by the Representatives of the United States of America. Its final title was "the unanimous Declaration of the thirteen united States of America." This document incorporates the resolution on July 2.

TREATY OF PARIS, 1783

Political conditions in England during Revolution.
George III—attitude towards America.
Lord North—resigned, March, 1782.
Rockingham—New prime minister. Took office on condition that peace be made.
Fox—Minister for Foreign Affairs.
Shelburne—colonial department. Quarrelled with Fox over handling of peace negotiations.
American representatives—John Adams, Franklin, Jay, Laurens, and Jefferson.
English representatives—Oswald and Strachey.

Instructions to American delegates by Congress. Make the most candid and confidential communications upon all subjects to the ministers of our generous ally, the King of Frances; to undertake nothing in the negotiations for peace or truce without their knowledge and concurrence; and ultimately to govern yourselves by their advice and opinion.

Peace negotiations.

1. Jay suspicious of France and desires separate treaty with England. Marbois letter. France desired part of Mississippi Valley for Spain, another part for England, and the rest an Indian state under American protection.
2. Oswald's commission authorized him to deal with commissioners of colonies or plantations. Jay refused to deal with him unless he dealt with representatives of the United States.
3. Boundary question.
   a. Northeast boundary (Maine). Not correctly drawn. Finally settled in Webster-Ashburton Treaty.
4. Fisheries. Enjoy fisheries in common with British subjects.
5. Case of tories. England desired that they be indemnified for loss of property. Americans recommended this to States, who did not carry it out.
6. Navigation of Mississippi River. Free to England and U. S., although Spain controlled it.

   Treaty signed November 30, 1882, incorporated in general treaty September, 1783.

ARTICLES OF CONFEDERATION

Maryland, last state, signed March 1, 1781.

Organization.

A congress of one house—each state to have one vote.

Powers.

a. Decide peace and war.
b. Manage diplomatic affairs.
c. Built and equip a navy.
d. Borrow money.
e. Make requisitions on states for men and money.
f. Regulate post offices.
g. Determine alloy and value of coin.
h. Final authority in disputes between states.

Any measure of importance to have nine votes to pass. When Congress not in session a committee to sit.

B. Weaknesses of articles.

a. No power to raise money. Could borrow money, but not repay it.
b. No power to regulate commerce.
c. No executive department.
d. No judicial department.
e. Could make laws, treaties, etc., but not enforce them.
f. Laws operated on states not individuals.

BIBLIOGRAPHY OF AMERICAN REVOLUTION

Adams, R. G.—*Political Ideas of American Revolution.*
Morrison—*Select Documents of American Revolution.*
Channing—*History of United States,* Vol. III.
Merriam—*American Political Theories.*
Tyler, M. C.—*Literary History American Revolution.*
Lecky—*American Revolution.*
Trevelyan—*American Revolution.*
Fisher—*American Independence.*
Van Tyne—*American Revolution (American Nation).*
Howard, G. E.—*Preliminary of American Revolution.*
Bancroft—*History of United States.*
Windsor, J.—*Narrative and Critical History.*
Force, Peter—*Archives of American Revolution.*
McDonald, W.—*Select Documents of American History.*
Niles, H.—*Principles and Acts of American Revolution.*
Putnam—*Writings of American Statesmen.*
Adams, John—*Writings.*
Locke—*Second Essay on Government.*
Laski, H. J.—*Political Thought from Locke to Bentham.*
Dunning—*Locke.*
Paine, Thomas—*Common Sense.*
Becker, Carl—*Declaration of Independence.*
Friedenwold—*Declaration of Independence.*
Hildreth, R.—*History of America.*
Van Tyne—*Loyalist of American Revolution.*
Beer, Louis—*British Colonial Policy.*
Cambridge Modern History, Vol. 7
American Statesmen Series.
American Nation Series.
Yale Chronicle Series.

JOHN N. MCILWRAITH

TRAINING AND VOCATION

A considerable number of students do not follow the vocation or profession for which they prepare themselves while attending college. According to a recent survey of land-grant colleges, 45 per cent of the students who registered in agriculture took up some other occupation after leaving the institutions. Of the students who specialized in engineering, there were 32 per cent that went into some other vocation in later life. Approximately 80 per cent of the women students who studied home economics in college became either home makers or entered home economics positions after leaving college, while 20 per cent entered into some other field of endeavor. In the case of students who registered in education, the returns indicate that 43 per cent abandoned teaching after graduation, going into some different occupation.

A SOCIAL SYMPOSIUM

A SMALL group[1] of Seniors at Harrisonburg, studying sociology, were given certain questions on which to make written reports; at the same time they were requested to give an answer to each question in a sentence or two. Below are tabulated some of the sentence answers, for what they may be worth, without names and without comments.

I. *What Is Civilization?*

1. Civilization is the whole sum of man's achievements, resulting in social order in place of lawlessness.
2. The sum total of social character and achievement.
3. All the cultural, social, industrial, and political achievements of humanity, resulting from accumulated experience.
4. The humanization of man in society.
5. The constructive use of mental and physical powers by each individual for the improvement of mankind.
6. That state of culture or progress by which society may utilize the arts and sciences.
7. The highest form of man's development. It is founded on the grit and endurance of those who put duty before inclination, and it embraces the achievements of man from savagery to the present time.
8. It is the outcome, or flower, of human progress.
9. It is the manipulation and mastery of all forces of both man and nature.

II. *What is the Social Goal?*

1. The social goal is a harmonious working together of individuals, groups, and nations, for the good of mankind.
2. Correct living and happiness for all.
3. Co-operation and happiness.
4. To attain happiness by promoting health and wealth, increasing intelligence and knowledge, and strengthening religion and morality.
5. Improvement of the group through the individual, resulting in the greatest happiness and usefulness.
6. A general recognition of the brotherhood of man.
7. Correct living, enjoyment of the best in life, and social harmony.
8. To promote health and wealth, to cultivate morality, to establish justice, through a social machinery that is effective and benevolent because it bases on personal work and individual efficiency.
9. Providing happiness and more complete living for the greatest possible number of people.

III. *What is Social Progress?*

1. Social progress is growth mentally, physically, and morally, with a wise application of this growth.
2. It is the more complete adaptation of society to the conditions of life.
3. The gradual emancipation of man and his elevation from the selfish plane.
4. That unity of progress that involves all mankind and concerns itself mostly with the improvement of social order and government.
5. The development or going forward of the group and of the average individual.
6. The steady elevation of standards and ideals.
7. The work of geniuses followed up by social action.
8. Harmonizing powers—co-operation towards higher goals.
9. A development of the individual that becomes evident in the race.

IV. *What is Human Nature?*

1. Human nature comprises the inborn,

---

[1]The class, an even dozen, was made up of the following individuals: Frances Bell, Sarah Bowers, Rowena Crush, Catherine Markham, Clarinda Mason, Martha Moore, Chloe P. Oakes, Elspeth Peyton, Robbie Quick, Wellford Smith, Virginia Thomas, and Eleanor Wrenn.

spontaneous qualities of man, which time cannot alter or change.

2. The sum total of the inherent tendencies of mankind.

3. The characteristics common to mankind.

4. Human nature embraces original instincts, capacities, and tendencies with which we are endowed when we enter the world.

5. The faculties, sensibilities, and powers inborn in the race of mankind, that distinguish men from other beings.

6. A spontaneous and impulsive expression of innate, instinctive feelings.

7. Human nature—the sum total of those physical and psychical factors that tend to repeat themselves in mankind from generation to generation.

8. Human nature is that beneath the surface in each of us, which, if we were stripped of convention, clothing, and manners, would make us like Adam.

V. *What is Religion?*

1. Religion is that indefinable something within each human being that makes him keep faith with God and man.

2. Religion is man's filial relation to, union with, and faith in God.

3. Religion is that instinct of deep-felt want within the human breast, involving a sense of faith in and dependence on some higher power.

4. Religion is faith in and devotion to one's ideal of a Power higher than man, and the desire to strive for that ideal.

5. Religion is a faith in some supreme power on which man regards himself as dependent and to which he feels responsible.

6. Religion is worship of a Supreme Being, with faith and ethical relationships implied.

7. Religion is conscious dependence on and devoted faith in a Supreme Goodness.

8. Religion involves the recognition, worship, and adoration of a higher being, to whom one owes obedience, honor, and service, faith being fundamental.

9. Faith that acknowledges a supreme being, and a courage that stands for truth and right.

10. Religion is the result of man's effort to express a compelling, worshiping impulse within him—a faith and adoration that are natural in the presence of Infinity.

VI. *What is a Good Government?*

1. A good government is one that serves the great human needs.

2. One that is integrated in a well balanced code of laws, that stands for truth and justice, and that is executed by intelligent and impartial officers.

3. One that promotes the highest standards of citizenship through law and order.

4. One that fits the needs of a given country or people.

5. One that is intelligent, impartial, and practical, stimulating the individual to a habit of civic thinking.

6. One in which all laws are just, the officials intelligent, capable, and impartial, and all the people co-operate for the general welfare.

7. One in which the principle of the Golden Rule is made effective.

8. The political machinery by which a community or a state exercises fair and effective control over its public affairs.

9. One in which just laws are administered by broad-minded and efficient officers.

10. A good government is of the people, enabling them to live more completely, because it is progressive, educational, and responsible.

VII. *Why Has Monogamy Prevailed?*

1. Monogamy has prevailed because of the economical, biological, and ethical demands of society.

2. It has stood the test of time better than any other form.

3. It harmonizes with the natural instincts.

4. By a trial-and-error process, monogamy has been found to fit best the nature and needs of progressive civilization.

5. Because of feminine sentiment, property rights, and grocers' bills.

7. Family relations are definite and strong. It affords the best conditions for rearing and training children. It ministers to natural affection and sentiment. It is favorable to the lives of both parents and children.

VIII. *Why Has Sociology Been So Late Taking Shape as a Science?*

1. Because it has been only through experience that its value and importance have been discovered.

2. Being an inexact science, its principles were elusive.

3. It has had to win over human pride and prejudice—adverse "mental-set."

4. Sociology, though as old as the human race, has been late in taking shape as a science because people have only recently realized the significant place it holds in human welfare.

5. Sociology, being so comprehensive and so complicated, required the previous development of all other sciences as its aids.

6. In former times more thought was given to the individual, but with more advancement it has been found that full and happy living depends on one's relations in the human group.

THE LONG ROAD TO TRANQUILITY

It takes an endless amount of history to make even a little tradition, and an endless amount of tradition to make even a little taste, and an endless amount of taste, by the same token, to make even a little tranquillity.

HENRY JAMES

A DAY IN THE COURT OF HAMMURABI

IN THEIR study of ancient history, the 8b grade of the Harrisonburg Junior High School became much interested in the law code of Hammurabi, and one proposed a dramatization. The play was written and presented by the pupils, with the aid of their teacher, Miss Virginia Thomas, under the supervision of Miss Stockberger.

Setting—Throne Room of Hammurabi.

Time—About 2100 B. C.

The story opens in Babylon when Hammurabi was king. Hammurabi is seated on his throne talking to his attendants.

Hammurabi *(to attendants)*—I have some very important things to do, but the most important is doing justice by my people. I have written this code of laws which I have in my hand in order that I might judge my people. I think that I have done justly by them. Yet, there are those who will not obey and will have to be punished. That is what I have to do today.

King's High Commissioner *(to Hammurabi)*—My Master, in the other room are many people who have come to you for justice.

Hammurabi *(to guard)*—Show one in, and I shall decide what is to be done.

(The guard goes out of the room into the outer one and returns, leading a soldier.)

Guard *(to Hammurabi)*—Oh, King, this man has betrayed his country.

Hammurabi *(to soldier)*—What is your name?

Soldier *(in low voice)*—Shadrach, my king.

Hammurabi *(in loud voice)*—You are accused of betraying your country.

Shadrach—I know, sir.

Hammurabi—Are these things true? Did you leave your place when you saw that your side was losing?

Shadrach—I did.

Hammurabi—You deserted your post, and you are a traitor.

(Hammurabi runs his finger down his clay tablet of laws. Silence is heard.)

Hammurabi—You have disobeyed one of my important laws, and you shall be punished.

(Court room is silent. Then)—

Hammurabi—Your punishment will be that you shall have your legs cut off so that you will never be able to desert your country again.

(The soldier is led out; two men are led in by the guard.)

Guard *(to Hammurabi)*—The man that you see on my right is a rich man named Akkad who keeps a market. He accuses the man on my left, Belshazzar, a poor man, of stealing some bread from him.

Hammurabi *(to men)*—What do you have to say for yourselves?

Akkad—Belshazzar stole a piece of bread from me.

Hammurabi—Have you any evidence of that statement?

Akkad—Yes, here is a piece of the loaf of bread he dropped when I chased him.

Hammurabi *(to Belshazzar)*—Can you defend yourself?

Belshazzar—No, I was too poor to buy anything, and I needed food.

Hammurabi *(to Belshazzar)*—You have done wrong, so you will have to be punished. Your punishment will be that you shall give to Akkad ten loaves of bread for the one that you stole. If you cannot do this, then you shall be punished according to the law that reads, "If a thief have not wherewith to pay, he shall be put to death."

Hammurabi—Take them out, Guard, and bring in the next case.

(The guard takes the two men out and returns with a man and wife.)

Hammurabi *(speaking to the man)*—Now, what do you want?

The Man—My parents chose me a wife, and when she uncovered her face after the marriage ceremony, as is the custom of your people, I found to my horror that she was ugly. I am positively disgusted. I want a new wife and I want to see her before I marry her.

Hammurabi—Have you any evidence of her being ugly?

The Man—Yes, here she is. What more evidence would you want?

(The man brings his wife forward. Up until this time she has been in the background.)

Hammurabi—That is evidence enough. *(Turns to wife.)*—Have you anything to say?

The Wife—He promised to be my husband, and so he should be. My parents arranged the marriage without my consent and I cannot help it that I am his wife.

Hammurabi *(to man)*—You have not lived up to your promise. You shall for forty days and forty nights have a treatment given to your face that will make it green and ugly, even uglier than your wife's. From now on, you will never be able to say anyone else's face is ugly, because yours will be so, too.

(The man and woman are led out and a doctor named Hezekiah, and a nobleman named Darius return with the guard. The nobleman's eyes are bandaged.)

Hammurabi *(to Nobleman)*—What is wrong with your eyes?

Darius—This doctor, Hezekiah, put some medicine in them, and as a result, I am blind.

Hammurabi *(to the Doctor)*—Hezekiah, this man says that you put his eyes out. What did you use?

Hezekiah—I used crocodile blood with ground-up finger nails and goat hair.

Hammurabi—From where did you get the idea of that medicine?

Hezekiah—I learned of it from a great Egyptian physician.

Hammurabi—But why did you put this one kind of thing in his eyes?

Hezekiah—Darius came to me and said that he wanted something to make his eyes beautiful, so I gave him this treatment. I did not want to do it, but he begged so hard that I did it anyway.

Hammurabi—According to the big principle upon which these laws are based—an eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth—you shall have both of your eyes put out. *(To the Guard)*—Take these men out and bring the others in. *(The guard returns with two men quarreling and mumbling to each other.)*

Hammurabi—What is the cause of this wrangling?

First Man—This man here is a builder who built a house for me and did not make it strong. Consequently, the house has fallen and has caused the death of one of my best slaves.

Second Man—But, Sir, it was not my fault. The house was as strong as the usual ones, but a strong gale took it down.

Hammurabi—Gale or no gale, my Code says: "If a builder have built a house for a man, and have not made it strong, and the house built shall have fallen and have caused the death of the owner of that house, that builder shall be put to death. If he has caused the death of a son of the owner of the house, they shall put to death a son of that builder. If he has caused the death of a slave of the owner of the house, he shall give to the owner of the house slave for slave." Now, there is nothing else for you to do but to give this man one of your slaves.

Second Man *(to First Man, while leaving)*—Very well! Take your choice.

Hammurabi *(stretching himself)*—If I don't get some relaxation from this day's work, I don't know what I'll do!

Lord High Commissioner—Your Majesty, why don't you see the court dancers?

Hammurabi—Good suggestion, Commissioner. Go get the dancers.

(Dancers enter, headed by the main dancer. They dance and then leave stage. Hammurabi stands up and stretches again.) I call that a full day's work, don't you?

THE CHALLENGE

Teaching faculties of the higher studies must become education-minded in a broader sense than that concerned solely with the problems of individual students or of individual institutions. They must look before and after over the whole life of our people, which they are inevitably remaking. They must survey, criticize, and amend their own contributions to that life, in the light of a consistent educational theory and purpose. They must overhaul their pedagogy of instruction, to meet the requirements of large classes, coming from all manner of social antecedent and environment. They must become aware of their part, along with that of other institutions, in the discharge of a nationwide and nation-deep responsibility—to say nothing as yet of a still more inclusive responsibility. They must become, in their spiritual unity throughout the land, the chief organic agency in the shaping of the America that is to be, at least so far as its conscious aims and ideals are concerned.—ELMER ELLSWORTH BROWN, Chancellor of New York University.

PLAYING THE GAME

Almost all the rules of childhood are the rules of training for any sport. Spinach and carrots taste better when the child knows they are on every athlete's menu. Early to bed doesn't seem so bad when one realizes that the cardinal rule of training is plenty of sleep.

The reason that lots of children are spoiled is not because they have so many toys, but because they have so many that they don't want and never thought of asking for, declares *The Parents' Magazine.*

THE SOCIAL STATUS OF THE NORWEGIAN TEACHER

To understand the social status of the Norwegian teacher, says Gabriel E. Loftfield in his study of "Secondary Education in Norway" (Bulletin, 1930, No. 17, U. S. Bureau of Education), one must understand, in part at least, the Norwegian philosophy of education. In this philosophy the teacher of both primary and secondary education is not only an employee, hired by the board of education to perform a certain work by the month or by the year, but he is also a State or communal official who, by reason of superior training, education, and experience, sustains a peculiar relationship to both community and State. In this relationship he is considered not only an expert in his line, but a wise and able man whose advice and co-operation are sought in many civic and social functions. Frequently a teacher is herredsorforer (chairman of the county or city board of administration), or is director of a local bank or on various committees and boards of public affairs. He may engage in partisan political activities and may even become a candidate for and be elected to a seat in the Storting. In his absence in such case a substitute serves in the school. He enjoys freedom of speech and freedom to discuss political matters and questions of popular interest without in the least endangering his position.

A teacher whose talent and personality single him out as a leader is easily promoted to better positions and elected to membership on the local school board, which is not legally constituted without at least one member who is a teacher in active service. This representation of the professional staff on the administrative board is based in Norway on two principles:

(1) Teachers have studied questions of education and the needs of the schools in a scientific way and from a professional point of view. Their counsel is needed on questions of pedagogics and on the internal operation of the schools.[1]

(2) Teachers as a class or social order are so vitally interested in the management of the schools and of the whole system of education that they should be represented on the school boards so that their interests may be guarded at all times.

By this same philosophy it is inferred that the teachers, being entrusted with the training of the young, shall enjoy freedom of action outside of the schoolroom, and shall have such compensation and social rewards as will make them in a large measure economically independent. Otherwise their position would not correspond to their charge. It is expected that they will be endowed with social privileges, prestige, and emoluments commensurate with their great responsibilities.

Because of this social prestige and freedom of expression, the Norwegian teachers as a class have furnished a larger quota of leaders and distinguished men and women than any other class of people in Norway. Many of the prominent lawmakers served at some time as teachers in country or village schools. Many of the ministers and bishops in the State church were teachers in their younger days. Cabinet members, ministers of state, and several of the premiers of Norway have come up from the ranks of the pedagogues. The teacher is an active and important factor in the entire social and political order of the country.

A fundamental reason for the high social standing of the Norwegian teacher is his life tenure of position. He considers such tenure to be a matter of course, since he is educated and trained for a specific purpose largely at the expense of the State. Before being given a permanent appointment he

[1]Since Norway has no professional school superintendent to act as administrative officer for, and professional adviser to, the board, this counsel must necessarily come from the teachers.

must serve a probationary period, usually two years, in which he must prove that he is efficient, or drop out of the work entirely. When he has finished his professional training and his period of probation he becomes a permanent State or communal official with all the rights of such. He may be transferred to other schools within the jurisdiction of his school board, but his salary cannot be diminished. He may seek and obtain other positions in other towns or districts and may be removed for statutory causes such as immoral conduct. When he reaches the age of seventy he must resign. He then receives a pension commensurate with his salary and position.[2]

MORE WORK, LESS PAY

The survey of the 52 land-grant colleges of the United States includes a study of the staff and faculty members of these institutions, 12,032 individual records having been obtained. Data on salaries paid the different ranks working on both a 9-month and an 11-month basis were obtained. One of the significant facts developed was that the faculty members employed for 11 months received less salary than those working nine months out of the year. The median salary of the deans working nine months in 51 of the colleges was $5,193, as compared with $5,071 for the deans working 11 months. A similar situation was found in the case of the professors, the median for those employed for nine months being $4,278, and for those working on an 11-month basis being $4,161.

Associate professors working only nine months were paid a median of $3,342, in contrast to a median of $3,207 for associate professors on duty for 11 months. In the case of the lower ranks of the teaching staffs, slightly higher salaries were received by the assistant professors and instructors working for 11 months than those employed only nine months. Of the professional training of the staff members as shown by earned degrees, it was revealed in the report that 18 per cent held doctor's degrees, 34 per cent master's degrees as their highest, 37 per cent bachelor's degrees only, and 4 per cent have no degrees, while 7 per cent did not signify what degrees they held, if any.

[2]The State pension system of Norway is on the mutual plan and includes all State officials and functionaries. The State administers the funds and supplies any deficiency. During the time of service each teacher pays into the pension fund not to exceed ten per cent of his salary and receives upon retirement a yearly pension equal to about two-thirds of his salary. A widow receives pension in half the amount her husband has or would have received.

VICTIMIZING THE "SOUTH-PAWS"

"Difficulty in speech and stammering, in particular, may develop when a left-handed child is forced into right-handedness. Reading and writing difficulties are manifest in the reversal of letters, or syllables, and in extreme cases in writing there is an actual reversal of script as in mirror writing.

"It takes such children, who have been 'corrected,' a longer time to grasp and express ideas, and in many instances I have observed a lowered capacity for imaginative work and creation. Also, one often finds peculiarities in behavior which do not seem understandable until one appreciates the fact that the child's irritability, fatiguability, and perverse reactions may be due to a misuse of his brain and nervous system with consequent efforts at readjustment on the part of the victimized child."

—DR. IRA S. WILE.

We don't wait for a child to have a toothache before we take him to a dentist, observes *The Parents' Magazine,* but almost every parent waits until his child is in a dilemma before he tells him about sex.

THE VIRGINIA TEACHER

Published monthly, except July, August, and September, by the State Teachers College at Harrisonburg, Virginia.

Entered as second-class matter March 13, 1920, at the postoffice at Harrisonburg, Virginia, under the act of March 3, 1879.

EDUCATIONAL PRESS ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA

CONRAD T. LOGAN, *Editor*
HENRY A. CONVERSE, *Business Manager*
CLYDE P. SHORTS, *Circulation Manager*

ADVISORY BOARD
KATHERINE M. ANTHONY BESSIE J. LANIER
C. E. NORMAND

Manuscripts offered for publication from those interested in our state educational problems should be addressed to the editor of THE VIRGINIA TEACHER, State Teachers College, Harrisonburg, Virginia.

EDUCATIONAL COMMENT

WHAT ARE PERCENTILES?

Recently, the writer heard a psychologist in a public address refer to the "top ten percentile" of a distribution. This psychologist is a statistician of considerable prominence and, undoubtedly, knows better. His careless use of the term "percentile" was probably induced by hearing other psychologists and educators employ the term in this manner.

An article in an educational periodical refers in its title to the "first decile of college Freshmen." (Unfortunately, a typographical error made the word appear *docile* instead.) Many speakers and some writers continually make references to the lowest quartile of a class, the second quintile of a distribution, and the like. As we shall see, these terms are not properly employed in this manner.

Percentiles are *points*, not *ranges*. The 10-percentile, for example, is the theoretically determined point on a scale below which 10 per cent of the distribution lies. It is a theoretically determined point because of the assumption which we make regarding the distribution of the scores in an interval. The scale on which this point lies is the scale employed as an instrument of measurement in collecting the data.

All percentiles, including deciles, quintiles, quartiles, and the median, are points. It is then impossible for an individual to be "in the first quartile," or "in the top decile." We might as well speak of an individual as being *in* the median. The expression "top ten percentile" is meaningless. If the top 10 per cent is meant, why not say so? Instead of talking about quartiles of a class as parts of a class, let us say "quarters" or "fourths." Likewise, we should say fifths, if we mean fifths, and "tenths" if we mean tenths. Quintiles are percentiles which are multiples of 20; deciles are percentiles which are multiples of 10. They are points which divide the distribution into fifths and tenths respectively.

The careless use of the language of statistics misleads the young student. If one speaker uses the term "third quartile" to designate the point separating the lower three-fourths of the distribution from the upper one-fourth, while another speaker, perhaps on the same program, employs this expression to indicate those individuals lying above the median but below the 75-percentile, confusion of interpretation on the part of the listeners is to be expected.

Textbooks in statistics indicate clearly that percentiles are points. Kelley says, "The 10-percentile is the value below which 10 per cent of the measures lie." Odell talks about tertiles, quintiles, deciles, and percentiles, and the "calculation of these . . . points." Garrett speaks of the "decile points" and other "percentile points." Holzinger defines a percentile as "a value of the variable below which a given per cent of the frequencies lie." Thurstone refers to "quartile points," and uses these measures entirely as points. Mills says that quartiles "are points on the scale which divide the entire number of measures into

four equal groups." Chaddock refers to the various percentiles as "values." In the language of Chambers, "the deciles separate the whole range into ten intervals." Crum and Patton state that "the quartiles divide the array into sections each of which contains one-quarter of the total frequency." Finally, we read in Lovitt and Holtzclaw that "percentiles are those values of the variable which divide the entire frequency into one hundred equal parts."

In this day, it is more or less fashionable to use the language of statistics. Statistical language is frequently used, however, when a better-known, good old-fashioned term correctly expresses the intended meaning. The man who says "lowest quartile" when he means "lowest fourth" probably does not know the meaning of the word "quartile." Is it possible that he is affecting an educational "highbrow"?

In some quarters an effort is being made to substitute the word "centile" for percentile. There is little evidence that this effort is meeting with success.—R. L. MORTON, in the *Educational Research Bulletin* for Oct. 22, 1930.

"CANNED" MUSIC IN SCHOOLS

The unique service rendered by a branch library in New York City of enabling people to listen by appointment to their favorite music played on a fine phonograph in a sound-proof room presages a new trend in schools generally, it is predicted by some educators.

In the first place, the success of the venture in the New York library, which is attested to by the fact that the music room is patronized every minute of the nine hours a day it is open and that appointments are made weeks in advance, punctures the claims of certain educators that so-called "canned" music lowers the taste for good music. Of the 1,500 records on file at the library, most of them are symphonies, operatic numbers, and other standard works.

Moreover, claim these educators who advocate a greater acceptance by schools of the modern mechanical means of widening the mental horizon of youth, a steady diet of music is stimulating and breaks the monotony of hours of study. When this music is rendered by superb artists, as it is on the records played by mechanical instruments, a sense of art and a great appreciation of music generally accompanies the other benefits.

JANUARY RADIO GUILD PLAYS

There follows a list of stations from which are broadcast each Friday in January at 4:00 p. m. E. S. T. the dramatic productions of the Radio Guild, a series of plays selected from high school reading lists and presented by outstanding actors. A list of the plays and players to be presented during January may be obtained from the National Broadcasting Company, 711 Fifth Ave., New York: WJZ, WBZ, WBZA, WBAL, WHAM, WRC, WLW, KYW, KWK, WREN, CKGW, WTMJ, WMC, WPTF, KOA, WJAX, KGO, WSB, WSMB, KVOO, KPRC, WOAI, KSL, KFI, KOMO, KFSD, KFAB, KSTP, WEBC, WSM, KTAR.

THE PRESIDENT RECOMMENDS—

"I urge further consideration by the Congress of the recommendations I made a year ago looking to the development through temporary federal aid of adequate State and local services for the health of children and the further stamping out of communicable disease, particularly in the rural sections. The advance of scientific discovery methods and social thought imposes a new vision in these matters. The drain upon the federal treasury is comparatively small; the results both economic and moral, are of the utmost importance.—*From President Hoover's Message to Congress,* December 3, 1930.

LAND-GRANT COLLEGES

The report of the survey of 52 land-grant colleges and universities, including America's largest institutions of higher learning such as the University of California, The University of Illinois, Ohio State University, University of Minnesota, and Massachusetts Institute of Technology, is now available. It is the first of a series of nation-wide educational studies being conducted by the Office of Education of the Department of the Interior.

All phases of the operations of modern universities; teaching staff, salary scale, athletics, student activities, success of alumni, library facilities, stock judging contests, scholarships, student loans and fraternities, are evaluated and summarized in the report, which contains more than 1,800 pages and is printed in two volumes.

The survey was started July 1, 1927, by authorization of Congress, which appropriated $117,000 to defray its cost. It was completed June 30, 1930.

Only land-grant colleges, which are the 52 institutions located one in each State and the outlying possessions of Alaska, Hawaii, and Porto Rico, except Massachusetts, which has two, were studied. Land-grant colleges were established under the first Morrill Act, passed by Congress and signed by President Lincoln in 1862, providing a total endowment amounting to $13,478,96. Now the total value of the land-grant colleges is nearly half a billion dollars.

Although the 52 land-grant colleges and universities are but one-half of one per cent of the colleges and universities of the United States, they enroll 164,000 resident students, which is 16 per cent of the student population of the American institutions of higher education. Shortly after their organization the land-grant colleges had an enrollment of only 2,243 students, the report shows. Only men attended the institutions in the early days, but they now register 104,992 women students.

ADOLESCENTS NEED MORE SLEEP

Long hours of sleep, from 8:30 p. m. to 7:00 a. m., are more needed by the adolescent than by even the younger child, says Dr. Josephine Kenyon, of Columbia University.

PUNISHMENT VERSUS TRAINING

Do You—	*Or Do You—*
Nag children about eating proper foods?	Serve the proper kind of food, making meal-time a pleasant occasion, and allowing no "piecing"?
Slap your child to make him keep away from the vacuum cleaner?	Teach him how to run it?
Scold your child for taking dishes from the table?	Show him how to handle dishes without breaking them?
Punish children for being slow and untidy?	Practice with them dressing and toilet duties, under a time limit?
Punish children for getting their clothes dirty when playing?	Realize that play is more important for them than keeping clean?

THE READING TABLE

CLOTHING AND STYLE. By William H. Dooley. New York: D. C. Heath & Company. 1930. $2.40.

This book by the principal of the Textile High School, New York City, has achieved something more than the usual textbook that deals only with garment construction and textile study. Clothing is considered from its social, æsthetic, historic, economic, and hygienic aspects.

The chapters applying art principles to dress are particularly good, as is the chapter that deals with the economic factors affecting the price of clothing. In presenting the social aspect of clothing, the author is keeping step with the modern trend in all lines of education. The relation of clothing to health is also interestingly developed.

The cycle theory of fashions is explained as based on the development of costume throughout the ages. The history of costume, though briefly and concisely given, is entirely adequate for general classroom use.

The book should prove a valuable acquisition to both college and high school home economic libraries.

A. R. B.

PROBLEMS IN GENERAL SCIENCE. By George W. Hunter and Walter G. Whitman. New York: American Book Co. 1930. Pp. 688.

In this text is found a thorough treatment of all those topics which have come to be accepted as comprising the minimum content of a General Science text. Considerable material beyond this accepted minimum is also included. This material should prove especially useful to the more enterprising teachers and students.

The material of the text is divided into twenty-one units of from three to nine parts each. In each of these parts a particular problem bearing on the subject of the unit is stated, and information is presented and experiments are suggested which lead to a solution of this problem. Throughout the text every device is used to develop in the student an attitude of intelligent questioning and a habit of seeking answers to these questions in terms of his own knowledge and observation.

The sequence of the units, and of the problems within the units, is natural and logical. At the same time, the material within each unit is sufficiently complete to allow a wide interchange of order of presentation without serious loss of continuity, should such interchange seem desirable.

The style of the book is interesting and readable. Simplicity and clearness of statement without sacrifice of accuracy is attained to a degree unusual in elementary science texts. The numerous illustrations, both drawings and photographic reproductions, are well chosen and add greatly to the value and attractiveness of the book.

Summaries, test questions, suggested problems, and references to collateral readings are supplied in abundance, and are so designed as to be useful both to teachers and students. At the end of the text is a glossary of important terms, which should prove most acceptable to all who use this text.

Both in material presented and in the method of presentation this text is admirably suited to high school classes in General Science.

C. E. N.

SCIENCE DISCOVERY BOOK. Based on Carpenter and Wood's OUR ENVIRONMENT. Boston: Allyn and Bacon. 1930.

To those teachers of General Science who are using as a text, *Our Environment: Book One,* the *Science Discovery Book* by the same authors should prove very acceptable. This book, together with the above text, forms a combined manual of experiments, projects, and observations, together with a completely worked out notebook for reports on these experiments and observations, and reports on certain self-tests suggested in the text.

The experiments are so chosen as to require a minimum of equipment. The report forms are worked out with such thoroughness as to relieve the teacher of many supervisory details, and to assure a degree of uniformity in reports. The material is attractively arranged, and every opportunity is taken to develop in the student those practices of orderliness, thoroughness, accuracy, and self dependence, in both thought and execution, that are so desirable in all scientific work.

The *Science Discovery Book* is explicitly designed to accompany the text by the same authors, and by the close correlation of material, is admirably adapted to this use. This close correlation, however, renders it practically useless in connection with any other text.

C. E. N.

OUR UNITED STATES. By William B. Guitteau. New York: Silver, Burdett and Company. 1930. Pp. 626 plus 46. $1.68.

This is a history of the United States suitable for the seventh grade or junior high school. The part divisions and chapter headings are well adapted to clearness and interest in studying and teaching. The pictures are numerous and attractive; the maps are well made and plentiful. The appendix contains some useful matter besides the Declaration of Independence and the Federal Constitution; and the index is much more complete than is usual in books of this grade. Social, political, industrial, and economic topics are given due emphasis.

RURAL COMMUNITY LIFE. By Lee Ora Lantis. New York: American Book Company. 1930. Pp. 375.

It is the aim of this book to discuss social conditions in rural communities and to offer suggestions for improving the standard of living of rural citizens. The author recognizes that soil, climate, topography, racial types, and other factors enter largely into the problem. There is a summary at the end of each chapter. There are also questions and suggestions for projects. The illustrations and diagrams are helpful. Numerous references for additional reading are given.

LABORATORY EXERCISES IN EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS, WITH TABLES. By Robert Lee Morton. New York: Silver, Burdett and Company. 1928. Pp. 197.

This small volume is a practical problem book intended to give opportunity for the student to gain skill in the manipulation both of the simpler and the more technical statistical measures. There are fifty exercises supplemented with the more important tables so necessary as time-saving devices in statistical manipulation. This book should do much to take inaccuracy and mysticism out of the handling and interpretation of data.

W. J. G.

SOLID GEOMETRY. By F. Eugene Seymour. New York: American Book Company. Pp. 239.

An interesting feature of this new geometry is a summary of the important theorems of the plane geometry necessary to be known and to which references may be readily made by the student of solid geometry.

The treatment of the subject follows much the conventional lines. The figures are well drawn and clear-cut. Numerous exercises are interpolated from time to time enabling the student to put into practice the theory developed in the text. Cavalieri's theorem is introduced in the determination of the volume of a sphere. A small space is devoted to illustrations of the conic sections as plain sections of a conic surface although no proof is given. The book contains as supplementary propositions and exercises a goodly number of the less used theorems on polyhedra and of the geometry of the surface of a sphere. The trigonometric functions are introduced at the end, and the book contains tables of powers and roots, of logarithms of numbers, of natural trigonometric and of logarithms of trigonometric functions to which are appended tables of formulas commonly used in geometry and tables of measurements of length, area and volume. The value of the book is enhanced by a satisfactory index.

H. A. C.

PLANE GEOMETRY. By Joseph P. McCormack. New York: D. Appleton and Company. 1928. Pp. 383.

The introductory chapter gives a number of definitions of common terms in use in Geometry. The theorems through the book whose proof is required by the College Entrance Board are marked with a star which gives a certain advantage in the use of a book in a school preparing students to take College Entrance Board examinations. Book One covers the usual theorems of Rectilinear Figures with numerous exercises and some half tone illustrations and has an advantage over the older texts in geometry in that simple measurements whose construction develops on geometric principles are referred to at the time when its principles are developed. The usual method of handling the circle is followed fairly closely.

Book Two apparently has been made to show the oneness of certain theorems which are usually given as entirely separate theorems. Toward the end of the chapter of the Circle comes the method of construction of Geometric figures which one could wish had been introduced earlier. From time to time through the book are given self-measuring tests which should be of a good deal of value to the pupil who is trying to determine the status of his own knowledge of Geometry. Under the aid of proportion and similar facts trigonometric functions are introduced in a simple form.

It seems rather a pity that the problems presented on inequalities of lines and angles should have been left to a supplement as well as the well-known facts with regard to the circum center, in center and centroid of the triangle. Toward the end of the supplement an innovation is the introduction of new-type tests. The book closes with a story of Geometry in eight episodes.

H. A. C.

A TEXT-BOOK OF ECONOMIC ZOOLOGY. By Z. P. Metcalf. Philadelphia: Lea and Febiger. 1930. Pp. 392. $4.00.

Although the major emphasis of this book is in the economic phase of zoölogy, ample consideration is also given to the classification and morphology of the subject to produce a well rounded text. It is well written and profusely illustrated and is calculated to maintain sustained interest. There is no other book that commends itself to the teacher of zoölogy in quite so many ways. Aside from its use in the colleges this book should be in the library of every high school teacher of biology as a reference.

G. W. C.

PLANNING A CAREER. By Lewis W. Smith and Gideon L. Blough. New York: American Book Company. 1929. Pp. 470.

In the introductory chapters the authors point out the value of education and the bearing of vocational training upon citizenship. The major part of the text, whose sub-title is "A Vocational Civics," is given over to readable brief discussions of all the major occupations for both men and women, couched in language suitable for the junior high school and high school age. Other helpful features of the book are the sets of exercises and of facts, at the ends of chapters, and two appendices, one a collection of striking poems and prose selections dealing with work and kindred topics, and the second furnishing valuable bibliographies on the various occupations.

W. J. G.

TAP DANCING. By Marjorie Hillas. New York: A. S. Barnes and Co. 1930. Pp. 29. $1.00.

This publication reminds one that tap dancing is beginning to fill a need of dancing that clogging cannot. Tap dancing may be adapted to modern sheet or record music, while clogging is usually adapted to sheet music only.

Definition of tap dancing terms and fourteen routines, with suggested sheet and record music, are included in this recent publication. The instructions are simple. For the beginners sheet music would be preferable to records. The material seems suitable for the average senior high school and college students, who have some knowledge of clogging.

C. W.

CHAPTERS IN CHURCH HISTORY. By John W. Wayland. New York: Fleming H. Revell Company. 1930. Pp. 154. $1.50.

A very interesting and unusual book of the history of the Christian Church. This book is designed for classes taking a brief course in Church History. It will be practical for Sunday School classes or for any type of class or individual limited in time and opportunity. The book is characterized by Dr. Wayland's practical and scholarly treatment. W. B. V.

FIRST AIDS

Among first aids to beginners' French the following deserve to be considered.

Camerlynck's *France, Book I*
Allyn and Bacon, New York
My Progress Book in French, No. I
Looseleaf Education, Inc., Columbus, Ohio
Coussirat's *French Grammar Exercise Pad*
Globe Book Company, New York
Modern Language Wall Charts (French)
D. C. Heath & Co., New York
Victoral records to accompany Fraser and Squair's *New Complete French Grammar*
Student Educational Records, Inc., Lakewood, New Jersey
Victrola record, *The Four Hundred Commonest French Words*
Automatic Record Institute, New York
Victrola records of the *Marseillaise* and other airs
Chantons un peu—a good song book
Doubleday, Doran and Co., Garden City, New York
Games for drill in vocabulary, verbs, pronouns, etc.
Bruce Publishing Company, Milwaukee, Wisconsin
Maps of France and Paris

FIVE RULES FOR HAPPY PARENTHOOD

Parents as well as children have the right to be happy and enjoy the family relationships, says Dr. Jessie Chase Fenton in *The Parents' Magazine*. Five rules which, according to this child psychologist, will lead to happy parenthood, are:

1. Recognize the fact that parenthood does not endow one with any exalted characteristics; even parents are human beings.

2. Find your children interesting, in the sense that radio fans find a radio interesting.

3. React to your children objectively, not possessively.

4. Don't submerge yourself in your children. Keep a life of your own.

5. Enjoy your children.

NEWS OF THE COLLEGE

Mary Watt, Katherine Bowen, Mary Farinholt, and Frances Ralston brought prestige to H. T. C. when they were chosen on the picked team to play an exhibition game against the Philadelphia "Southeasterners" at the recent hockey tournament at William and Mary. The entire team made the trip. Although the tournament was primarily instructive rather than competitive, Harrisonburg tied Sweet Briar in one game with a score of 0-0, and was defeated 2-1 by Farmville.

With Nancy Trott in charge of student participation, the annual Red Cross drive held this year was a real success. Of especial interest was the float in the Armistice day parade, which attracted much comment because of its unusual features.

Richard B. Sheridan's comic opera, "The Duenna," was presented here by the Jitney Players, November 12, as the second number of the college entertainment series.

Miss Florence Stratemeyer, first vice-president of Kappa Delta Pi and member of the faculty of Teachers College, Columbia University, visited the campus and training school, November 1 and 2. Alpha Chi Chapter of Kappa Delta Pi entertained in her honor.

Mary Cloe, of Charleston, West Virginia, was elected president of the freshmen class recently. Other officers are: Evelyn Watkins, of Norfolk, vice-president; Dorothy Williams, of Norfolk, treasurer; Mildred Simpson, of Norfolk, secretary; Margaret Eure, of Lynchburg, business manager, and Virginia Carmines, of Hampton, sergeant-at-arms. Miss Lula Coe will be their Big Sister, Dr. H. A. Converse, their honorary member, and Janet Rebecca Hanson, their class mascot.

Approximately six hundred white-clad H. T. C. girls marched, according to class, in the Armistice day parade here. Immediately after the parade, the student body at-

tended a picnic at the school camp, through the courtesy of the Shenandoah Bus Company, which furnished free transportation.

Harrisonburg varsity lost to Westhampton in the first home game of the season, played here, with a score of 2-1. In a fast and exciting game, Harrisonburg successfully downed the William and Mary hockey team with a score of 3-2.

Miss Florence Boehmer, Dean of Women, recently attended the meeting of the Woman's Intercollegiate Association at New Jersey College for Women in New Brunswick, New Jersey. She also attended a regional meeting of deans at Washington, D. C.

Louise Hobson, of Roanoke, and Rosalie Ott, of Harrisonburg, have been announced as new members of the Æolian Club.

The Stratfords presented the modern comedy, "Bab," as their first play of the season on December 5.

Almost four hundred girls spent the Thanksgiving holidays at home—or at other interesting places. There was the usual turkey dinner and Thanksgiving celebration for those who remained on the campus.

Many alumnæ visited friends at the college during the holidays, a number of them playing on the alumnæ hockey team, which was beaten by the varsity by a score of 3 to 0. The Y. W. C. A. and other organizations entertained in honor of these visitors.

ALUMNÆ NEWS

MANY ALUMNÆ RETURN TO COLLEGE DURING THE THANKSGIVING HOLIDAY

Former students of H. T. C. registering in the Alumnæ Office at Thanksgiving were as follows:

Mary B. Allgood, Clifton Forge; Evelyn Bowers, Winston-Salem, N. C.; Mary Crane, Raleigh, N. C.; Elizabeth Davis, Earleysville; Wilmot Doan, Winston-Salem, N. C.; Irene Garrison, Winston-Salem, N. C.; Helen Goodson, Norfolk; Audrey Hines, Richmond; Leonide Harris, Norfolk; Ida Hicks, Winston-Salem, N. C.; Ray Horsley, Arvonia; Anna Keyser, Franklin; Dorothy Lingren, Norfolk; Elizabeth Miller, Winston-Salem, N. C.; Othelda Mitchell, Martinsville; Una Poynter, Mountain Grove; Frances Rand, Amelia; Esther Smith, Winston-Salem, N. C.; Eugenia Beazley Terrell, Williamsburg; Lena Wolfe, Clarendon.

H. T. C. ALUMNÆ MEET AT THANKSGIVING

H. T. C. alumnæ and faculty members attending the Teachers' meeting in Richmond met at an informal tea Wednesday afternoon, November 25, at Miller and Rhoads's Tea Room. Mrs. Harry Garber, alumnæ secretary, was in charge of the affair. Mrs. Garber was assisted by Miss Margaret Herd, Miss Ruth Paul, and Mrs. Virginia Matheny Binns, of Richmond. More alumnæ were present at this meeting than at any meeting of former years. The tea proved to be a most enjoyable affair. Present were:

Helen Acton, Lillian Barham, Catherine Beard, Virginia Matheny Binns, Violette Raimey Burns, Anna Cameron, May Coffman, Elizabeth Davis, Agnes Dingledine, Virginia Drew, Florence Fray, Mary Fray, Dorothy Garber, Ame Garthwright, Mildred Goodwin, Elizabeth Harley, Mary Hawkins, Lois Henderson, Sallie Henley, Margaret Herd, Caroline Hickerson, Audrey Hines, Ethel Hoover, Nora Hossley, Lucille Keeton, Gladys Lee, Mrs. J. B. Massie, Byrd Nelson, Marion Nesbitt, Gladys Netherland, Marjorie Ober, Ruth Paul, Sue Raine, Mrs. W. T. Sanger, Margaret Shenk, Sophia Simpson, Clara Belle Smith, Mary Finney Smith, Preston Starling, Sally Stultz, Eugenia Beazley Terrel, Elizabeth Thomas, Frances Turpin, Helen Ward, Hunter Gwaltney Walton, Daisy West, Lena Will, Ruth Witt, Mattie Wor-

ster, Elizabeth Yates. Faculty members present: President Duke, Miss Anthony, Mrs. Blackwell, Mrs. Moody, Miss Lanier, Dr. Weems, and Mr. Dingledine.

HARRISONBURG ALUMNÆ ELECT OFFICERS

At a recent meeting of the Harrisonburg Local Alumnæ Chapter held at the college tea room, the following were elected as officers for the year 1930-31:

Mrs. Johnson Fristoe, president; Sarah Milnes, vice-president; Emma Byrd, secretary; Edna Dechart, treasurer.

The business meeting was then turned into a social affair. Bridge was played, prizes being given to the two single girls who had the highest scores and to the two married women who had the highest scores. During the latter part of the afternoon a delightful salad course was served by Sarah Milnes, who is in charge of the College Tea Room. About forty alumnæ living in Harrisonburg were present at this annual meeting of the Local Chapter.

LETTERS FROM ALUMNÆ

From THELMA EBERHART: I've been intending to write to you for a long time, but as usual, I've been very busy. I want to thank you for notifying me of Dr. Converse's visit here. I got in touch with all the schools here in Norfolk and put notices in the papers. We enjoyed seeing Dr. Converse so much. Last Saturday we elected new officers for our Alumnæ Chapter. We had a very nice meeting. Helen Goodson and Leonide Harris told us all about their visit to H. T. C. Thanksgiving. This made us all want to come back, and we are going to make our plans to come in May to the dedication of the new building. I get thrilled every time I think of it.

The new officers are: President, Isabel Duval; vice-president, Elizabeth Mason; secretary, Axie Brockett; treasurer, Elizabeth Brinkley; publicity chairman, Lillian Derry. I am hoping that we will have a very successful year with these girls to lead us. I am certainly going to do my part to help them. Did you know that Leonora Barrett is now Mrs. Arthur Simmons? Virginia Wiley is now Mrs. Linden Shroyer, and is living at Virginia Beach. Margaret Powell is going to be married this month. Give my regards to all the folks that I know at H. T. C., and just remember that I am anxious to do everything I can for my Alma Mater.

From MRS. MARY COOKE LANE: . . . This brings me to what I have wanted to say to you kind folks for almost a year, to thank you for the joy your letters and cards and magazines have been to us throughout the year. To those of you who have sent us subscriptions to magazines I want to add a line of appreciation. You at home, with news stands on every corner and in every hotel lobby, cannot imagine the possibilities of an American magazine in a foreign land. First of all, I try to steal time to read the leading articles and continued stories (my weakness) and articles on Babies and Home-making. Then I look over them for recipes and pictures for posters in Sunday Schools. Then last but not least in importance are the fashions; only today I have been looking over all the accumulated ones for trousseaus—four of my girls are getting married within the next two months. Then the magazines are given away for picture books to the many children and folks in the country on the waiting list. So you see what a missionary agency a magazine is, dear friends, who so graciously remembered us in that way. (Mrs. Lane's address is—Mrs. E. E. Lane, Sao Sebastiao do Paraiso, E. do Minas, Brazil. Postage: Letters, two cents.)

PERSONALS

Virginia Turpin recently sent dues to the Alumnæ Association. Virginia is teaching in Maury High School, Norfolk. Other alumnæ teaching in the same school are: Hildegarde Barton, Anna Cameron, Jennie Daughtrey, and Martha Lawrence.

Helen M. Lee, a 1930 graduate, is teaching in Ruffner Junior High School, Norfolk. Other alumnæ teaching in the Ruffner faculty are: Mary Louise Berryman, Mrs. Susie Ennis Bower, Helen Goodson, Virginia C. Graves, Leonide Harris, Bessie C. Mauzy, Edna Phelps, Bessie S. Taylor, Rachel Taylor, Mrs. Annie Warwick, Lilly Williams, and Sarah L. Wilson.

Frances Cabell is teaching history in the Washington and Lee High School, Cherrydale, Virginia.

Zena W. Crone, graduate 1915, is a stenographer for the Government at Hampton.

Hazel Davis, class 1919, is doing research work for the National Education Association at Washington, D. C.

Gertrude Drinker is teaching home economics and chemistry at Atlee.

Lillian Gilbert, class 1913, is home demonstration agent of Buchanan County.

Henrietta Jacob teaches first grade at Chincoteague.

Lillian R. Lanier, class 1925, is teaching second grade in Martinsville.

Edythe T. Maddox, graduate 1927, is principal of the Old Dominion School, Albemarle County.

Lila Lee Riddell has charge of the teacher training in home economics of Georgia State College for Women.

Dorothy Lothrop Brown teaches English in the State Normal School at Potsdam, N. Y.

Mary Lucille Biedler Piner teaches English in Morgantown city schools, North Carolina.

Frances Selby, class 1915, is registrar at East Texas State Teachers College, Commerce, Texas.

Zelia Wisman is head of the home economics department of Pennsylvania Ave. High School, Cumberland, Maryland.

News has been received that Martha Brame, one of our last year's graduates, is desperately ill with diphtheria in Lexington, where she had been teaching.

Carrie Dickerson teaches English and history in South Boston High School.

Margaret Dixon is dietitian at the Philadelphia General Hospital.

Estelle McKensie teaches second grade at Whiteville, N. C.

Annie Laurie Mauck is located at Pleasant Hill this year. She teaches history and science.

Mattie Worster, successful president of the Portsmouth Alumnæ Chapter, teaches third grade in Pinners Point School, Portsmouth. Martha Minton, class '28, teaches in the same school.

A CORRECTION

The article by Miss Grace Margaret Palmer in the last issue of THE VIRGINIA TEACHER (November, 1930) was mistakenly titled "The Psychology of Art Appreciation." The title should have read, "Some Opinions of Educators Concerning the Teaching of Art Appreciation."

OUR CONTRIBUTORS

THOMAS D. EASON is secretary of the State Board of Education with headquarters at Richmond.

RAUS M. HANSON is associate professor of social sciences in the State Teachers College at Harrisonburg.

JOHN W. WAYLAND is head of the department of history and social sciences at the Harrisonburg State Teachers College. He is the author of numerous volumes, including *The Pathfinder of the Seas* (Garrett & Massie), and *Chapters in Church History* (Revell).

JOHN N. McILWRAITH is professor of history and social sciences in the State Teachers College at Harrisonburg.

THE MCCLURE CO., INC. . . . PRINTERS . . . STAUNTON, VA.